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Background

Diagnostic testing is common during emergency department visits. Little is understood about patient preferences for such testing. We hypothesized that a patient's willingness to undergo diagnostic testing is influenced by the potential benefit, risk, and personal cost.

Methods

We conducted a cross sectional survey among emergency department patients for diagnostic testing in 2 hypothetical scenarios: chest pain (CP) and mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI). Each scenario defined specific risks, benefits, and costs of testing. The odds of a participant desiring diagnostic testing were calculated using a series of nested multivariable logistic regression models.

Results

Participants opted for diagnostic testing 68.2% of the time, including 69.7% of CP and 66.7% of all mTBI scenarios. In the chest pain scenario, 81% of participants desired free testing versus 59% when it was associated with a \$100 copay (difference: 22%; 95% CI 16 - 28%). Similarly, in the mTBI scenario, 73% of adult participants desired free testing versus 56% when charged a \$100 copayment (difference 17%; 95% CI 11 - 24%). Benefit and risk had mixed effects across the scenarios. In fully adjusted models, the association between cost and desire for testing persisted in the CP (OR 0.33; 95% CI 0.23 - 0.47) and adult mTBI (OR 0.47; 95% CI 0.33 - 0.67) scenarios.

Conclusions

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26 In this emergency department based study, patient preferences for diagnostic testing differed significantly
27 across levels of risk, benefit, and cost of diagnostic testing. Cost was the strongest and most consistent factor
28 associated with decreased desire for testing.

29 Introduction

30 The emergency department has emerged as a focal point for rapid access to advanced diagnostic testing and
31 hospital admission. Currently, given the pervasive nature of diagnostic testing in medical care, there is
32 increasing interest in reducing “low-value” testing.¹ Global definitions of low value testing tend to be subjective
33 and difficult to apply to complex health systems. In addition, evidence based diagnostic testing may allow for
34 the best care at a population level, yet may not be optimal for individual patients. Given this, taking patient
35 preferences into account may help to better tailor care for individuals.²

36 Health insurance has been evolving in the U.S. with numerous recent policy changes. In general, patients are
37 being asked to pay a larger proportion of their health care costs. Increasingly, clinicians are encouraged to
38 involve patients in discussions regarding the value of health care options. Shared decision making potentially
39 allows patient values, goals and preferences to be reflected in the decision to agree to a diagnostic test.
40 Currently, these discussions are challenging as the costs and benefits of tests are often difficult to define or even
41 estimate.^{1,3}

42 The current investigation aims to estimate the individual level trade-offs between the benefits, risks, and cost of
43 a diagnostic test within hypothetical acute medical conditions commonly seen in an emergency department. We
44 hypothesized that a patient’s willingness to undergo a diagnostic test is associated with different levels of
45 potential benefit, risk, and the out-of-pocket cost of this test.

52 Methods

54 Overview

55 This is a cross-sectional survey of the effect of varying levels of risk, benefit, and cost of diagnostic testing on
56 the probability of agreeing to pursue testing in two hypothetical clinical scenarios among adult patients in the
57 University of Michigan Emergency Department (ED).

59 **Study design**

60 Participants were presented with two hypothetical clinical scenarios, in random order, in which they present to
61 the ED with either low-risk chest pain (CP) or minor traumatic brain injury (mTBI). A subset of the mTBI
62 respondents with children under the age of 18 were given a similar scenario in which their child was the patient
63 (mTBI-child) instead of themselves (mTBI-adult).

64 Participants responded to both clinical scenarios and were randomly assigned to scenarios that described that
65 risk as 0.1% or 1%; a benefit of 0.1% or 1%; and a cost of \$0 or \$100 for the diagnostic test. All eight
66 combinations were given; in each benefit and risk could be equal or unequal. Different combinations of benefit,
67 risk and cost could be presented to one individual for the chest pain and mTBI scenarios. These values were
68 chosen to maximize the sensitivity of the study to detect differences in patient preferences based on a
69 preliminary study performed by the authors, where we believed the most interesting zone of variation in patients'
70 desire for diagnostic testing was for risk and benefit levels of 0.1% and 1% and cost levels of \$0 and \$100.⁴
71 Additionally, risk values of 0.1% and 1% were felt to represent a realistic chance of developing cancer from
72 diagnostic testing with radiation.⁵ In order to improve participants' incorporation of numerical values into their
73 decision-making, patients were presented with both textual and graphical representations where risk and benefit
74 values were presented as a ratio and percentage, as well as with a pictograph representing values of 1 in 100 and
75 1 in 1000.⁶ No graphical representation of money was employed.

76 A structured survey was then administered in which participants were asked to decide if they would pursue
77 diagnostic testing given different levels of risk (the development of cancer within ten years due to ionizing
78 radiation from the test), benefit (the chance of having an accurate diagnosis of disease requiring medical
79 intervention), and cost (an additional test-specific copay) associated with the diagnostic test. Prior to launch, we
80 used this survey in a prior, online only study.⁴ In addition, we pilot tested the questions amongst adults
81 associated with the study team. The survey was read aloud to all patients to reduce any misunderstandings
82 caused by difficulties with reading or seeing. The full transcript of the scenarios and survey is available in the
83 online supplementary material.

85 **Setting and Participants**

86 A convenience sample of adult patients who presented to the University of Michigan ED during daytime hours
87 in June, July and August 2015 were recruited in the study until 900 completed surveys were achieved. Patients
88 presenting with chest pain or recent head injury were not recruited so as to not interfere with their clinical
89 course. Additionally, patients who were under contact precautions or in resuscitation bays were not approached.
90 No compensation was offered for completion and participation was completely voluntary.

91 92 **Variables: Data Sources and Measurement**

93 The primary outcome was the number of patients who desired the diagnostic test in each of the two hypothetical
94 scenarios. Risk, benefit, and cost of diagnostic testing were the main predictive variables. Potential confounders
95 included age, gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, highest level of education, household income, if they were a
96 medical professional, as well as past medical history of cancer, hypertension, diabetes, atrial fibrillation, and
97 myocardial infarction, and self-reported overall health. We used a standardized data collection form through
98 Qualtrics (online supplement reference).

99 100 **Statistical Analysis**

101 *Study size*

102 We surveyed 900 patients to ensure that we had at least 100 patients within each of the eight study arms (from
103 the 2X2X2 study arm with two levels of the three key factors: risk, benefit, and cost). For each of the major
104 comparisons (i.e. cost \$0 versus \$100), a total sample size of 900 provided approximately 86% power to detect
105 a change in the proportion choosing a test from 50% to 60% with an alpha of 0.05. In addition, to ensure that
106 our logistic regression model was not over-parameterized, we limited the fully adjusted model to 30 variables
107 based on a predicted 300 outcome events (given a 33% event rate from our prior work and 900 subjects in the
108 current study) and according to the guideline of 10 events per predictor for construction of logistic regression
109 models.^{4,7} We did not have a formal main statistical hypothesis and did not have a pre-specified belief regarding
110 the relative importance of risk, benefit, and cost.

111 *Analysis*

112 All administered surveys in which the primary outcome was completed were analyzed. The unadjusted
113 proportion of respondents who desired diagnostic testing for each level of risk, benefit, and cost were compared
114 for the CP and mTBI scenarios. For proportions and differences in proportions, 95% confidence intervals were
115 calculated using the normal approximation. A series of nested multivariable logistic regression models were
116 then fit to predict the adjusted odds of desiring diagnostic testing for the CP and mTBI scenarios. We present
117 odds ratios along with 95% confidence intervals for the predictors in the models. We considered three sets of
118 variables to adjust for in the models, first simply looking at cost, risk and benefit in a single model; second

adding in demographic factors; and third adding in variables regarding personal experience with health care. We specified all of these sets of variables in advance based on our belief on potential confounders from the perspective of clinical experience and scientific plausibility. Model 1 provided estimates for the cost, benefit, and risk of testing simultaneously. Model 2 included everything from Model 1, and further adjusted for demographic variables including age, gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, education, and income. Model 3 included everything from Model 2, and further adjusted for variables associated with a participant's experience with health care decision making, including working in the medical or health field, personal history of cancer, high blood pressure, diabetes, atrial fibrillation, and myocardial infarction, as well as self-reported overall health status. A subgroup analysis of respondents who were asked to decide about diagnostic testing for their child versus themselves in the mTBI scenario was conducted using the same statistical techniques. As this was an exploratory, observational study, no adjustments for multiple comparisons were made.

Results

Among the 928 patients who met inclusion criteria and were administered the survey, 28 were excluded for failure to complete the primary outcome portion of the survey. Results from the remaining 900 patients were included in the study and analysis. The mean participant age was 46.4 (SD 17.0). Additional participant characteristics reflect the demographics of a large suburban ED (Table 1).

Overall, participants elected to have diagnostic testing 68.2% of the time, including 69.7% of CP and 66.7% of all mTBI scenarios. In the unadjusted analysis (Table 2), increased cost and decreased benefit of testing were associated with decreased desire for diagnostic testing among adults responding for themselves in both CP and mTBI scenarios, though this did not reach significance for test benefit in the mTBI-adult scenario. For example, desired testing fell from 80.8% to 58.7% in the chest pain scenario when comparing the free versus \$100 testing situations; the absolute difference in proportions was 22% (95% CI 16.1 to 27.7%); a similar magnitude drop of 17.4% (95% CI 10.5 to 24%) was observed in the mTBI-adult scenario. The risk of diagnostic testing was not associated with desire for testing in either the CP or mTBI-adult scenarios. Among mTBI scenarios, parents were significantly more likely to desire testing for their children than themselves at almost all levels of risk, benefit, and cost. This difference was most pronounced for higher-cost testing, which was desired 30.2% (95% CI 17.8%-38.6%) more often for their children than for themselves, and least pronounced for free testing, which was the only instance where parents' desire for testing of their children was not significantly higher than for themselves (difference 8.2%; 95% CI -3.4% to 17.1%). Furthermore, parents' desire for diagnostic testing of their children was not significantly associated with risk, benefit, or cost.

151 The pattern of desire for diagnostic testing in the adjusted regression models was similar to the unadjusted
152 analysis, with increased cost and decreased benefit being associated with decreased desire for diagnostic testing
153 among adults responding for themselves. Furthermore, there were no substantial changes in the odds of the
154 primary outcome after fully adjusting for demographics and experience with medical decisions (Table 3),
155 suggesting that the relationship between desire for diagnostic testing and the benefits, risks, and cost of testing
156 are not confounded these variables.

157 In the fully adjusted models (Table 3), the odds of an adult desiring diagnostic testing for him or herself are
158 lower when testing costs \$100 compared to \$0; for both chest pain: adjusted odds ratio (AOR) 0.33 (95% CI
159 0.23 to 0.47) and adult mTBI: AOR 0.47(95% CI 0.33 to 0.67). In addition, we observed higher odds of desired
160 testing when the benefit of testing increased from 0.1% to 1.0% for the CP scenarios: AOR 1.67 (95% CI 1.18 –
161 2.35). This did not reach significance for test benefit in the mTBI-adult scenario.

162 The fully adjusted models of desire for testing in each clinical scenario (eTables 1-4) demonstrated that patients
163 over the age of 65 are significantly less likely to desire testing for CP compared to patients less than 35 years
164 old (AOR 0.49; 95% CI 0.25 – 0.94). College graduates are the most likely to desire testing for both CP and
165 mTBI, and more than twice as likely than those with some high school education (AOR 2.12, 95% CI 1.07-
166 4.21). Participants who earned less than \$25,000 per year were significantly less likely to desire testing for CP
167 (but not mTBI) than almost all other income brackets, even after controlling for cost. Physicians, pharmacists
168 and nurses are significantly less likely to desire diagnostic testing for themselves when compared to non-
169 medical professionals and other ancillary medical staff when presented with the mTBI-adult scenario but not the
170 CP or the mTBI-child scenarios.

172 Discussion

173 This study evaluated the relationship between risk, benefit, and cost of diagnostic testing on patient preferences
174 for pursuing low-value testing the ED. In this cross-sectional convenience sample, we found that the cost and
175 potential benefits of a radiologic diagnostic test play an important role in patients' preferences for pursuing
176 diagnostic testing. Interestingly, the risk of the test was not significantly associated with the odds of pursuing
177 testing. This work is hypothesis generating. There are some potential implications of payers and patients. An
178 additional \$100 patient required contribution to the testing tended to decrease desire for testing from about 80%
179 to about 60%. In addition, the implication for practicing emergency physicians is as follows – increasing the
180 risk of a diagnostic test did not seem to diminish the patient desire for the test therefore discussion regarding
181 testing that involve risk may not influence patient desires, at least in the low probability space of testing risk of
182 1% and less.

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183 One explanation for why risk was not a significant factor could be that the difference between 0.1% to 1%
184 represents an insignificant increase in risk to our respondents. However, this same increase in benefit did show
185 a significant effect. Another possibility is that patients care more about their immediate needs, such as the
186 chance of finding an underlying condition and how much it will cost them, and less about the future risk of
187 developing cancer. Additionally, many patients may associate brain bleeds and heart disease, but not necessarily
188 cancer, with definite or immediate mortality and morbidity. They may view the presented scenario as a choice
189 between the immediate risk of certain death or disability against the possibility of a treatable illness in the
190 distant future.

191 Interestingly, patients appear to hold different values regarding diagnostic testing for their children than they
192 hold for themselves. Those who were presented with the mTBI scenario for their child pursued diagnostic
193 testing more frequently than for themselves regardless of the level of benefit, risk, or cost. While this study
194 lacked the statistical power to draw major conclusions about the pediatric scenario, further research may
195 uncover interesting results about how parents make healthcare decisions for their children as opposed to for
196 themselves.

197 These relationships of benefit, risk, and cost were not affected by any confounding factors that we measured.
198 There were however some subgroups which behaved slightly differently, but these did not affect the overall
199 results (eTables 1-4). Notably, healthcare providers desired testing less often for the mTBI scenario but not the
200 chest pain scenario. This is likely explained by the decreased prevalence of major intracranial bleeding in TBI
201 patients with a benign exam versus a reasonably high prevalence of coronary artery disease in the population of
202 patients with chest pain. Another interesting outlier is the lowest income group (less than \$25,000), which was
203 the only income subgroup that generally declined testing, even when they were told it would be free to them.
204 This study was not designed to evaluate subtleties between demographic groups but it is an interesting finding
205 nonetheless.

206 Increasing the cost of the diagnostic test from \$0 to \$100 was associated with a 3 fold decreased odds of
207 pursuing diagnostic testing. This implies that the cost of care is a major factor patients consider, and may be
208 used to discourage low-value testing through test-specific copayments, although this may also discourage
209 reasonable testing as well. Medicare reimbursements are increasingly becoming tied to patient satisfaction,
210 which is associated with patients receiving the tests they believe they need.^{8,9} Further investigations could
211 explore whether individual financial incentives prevent low-risk patients from seeking wasteful testing to the
212 same degree as charging patients a fee for the test.

213 There are a few key limitations to consider when interpreting the results of our study. First, this study asked
214 participants to imagine a hypothetical situation that is subject to limitations of imagination. It is likely more

215 difficult for patients to consider the distant risk of developing cancer when also contemplating a potential
216 myocardial infarction or brain hemorrhage. This reflects the well-known human behavior of time discounting.
217 Second, respondents may have had difficulty fully embracing the risks and benefits that were given to them,
218 largely since they had difficulty believing their own real-life comorbidities and risk factors were properly
219 accounted for in the scenario despite the design emphasizing they were. As an example, some patients on
220 anticoagulation have been instructed to always get a head CT scan if they fall and they may have been assigned
221 to the 0.1% risk category in our study. Third, many patients may also have struggled with interpreting
222 percentages, despite the use of visual aids. Fourth, this study limits the risk of a test to the probability of
223 developing cancer in the future secondary to radiation and this is an oversimplification of a very complex issue.
224 In reality, the risks of diagnostic tests are highly variable, and assessing their numerical risk is challenging. The
225 scenarios we utilized were emergent situations, and they helped expose patients' underlying values regarding
226 the risks, benefits, and costs of diagnostic testing. While these findings could theoretically be generalized to
227 other situations of risk, benefit, and cost, our study was specifically restricted to low-benefit and low-risk
228 situations regarding diagnostic radiologic testing in the emergency department. The above relationships may
229 vary significantly in different contexts or at different levels of benefit, risk, and cost. Next, the mTBI-child
230 group was under-powered to demonstrate any associations between risk, benefit, and cost with desire for
231 diagnostic testing. Fifth, we did not assess numeracy using a validated scale, but instead used pictographs – a
232 method considered to be one of the best methods of communication for those with low numeracy.¹⁰ Sixth, the
233 patient was not experiencing the acute uncertainty and potential anxiety of chest pain or a head injury and as
234 such willingness to undergo testing may be different. Finally, this study did not utilize a true shared decision
235 making model where the physician and the patient discuss the risks and benefits and then make a choice
236 together. Rather, this study assumed the physician could calculate the risk and benefit with 100% accuracy and
237 then forced the patient to decide on their own in essentially a reverse paternalistic model. Future work could
238 consider adding in provider uncertainty regarding benefits and risks possibly by adding ranges (i.e. “your risk of
239 a brain bleed is between 1 in 1000 and 1 in 10,000”) with pictographic supporting materials.

241 **Conclusions**

242 This cross-sectional survey suggests that patient preferences for diagnostic testing differ based on the cost and
243 benefits of testing, but that long-term risks may play a smaller role. Additionally, finances seemed to be a major
244 motivating factor for patients to avoid testing. With patients having a growing personal contribution to
245 healthcare, this impact should be studied further to determine how best to implement financial considerations to
246 alter testing behavior. This study utilized a copay to ‘penalize’ for the test, however, a credit for foregoing the
247 test similar to a safe driver discount would be an interesting direction for future research.

248 **Acknowledgments**

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280 **Tables and Figures:**281 **Tables:**

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283 **Table 1:** Characteristics of survey participants (N=900)

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Characteristic	No. (%)
Age, years (n=898)	
<= 35	271 (30.2)
35 - 49	226 (25.2)
50 - 64	258 (28.7)
>= 65	143 (15.9)
Male (n=897)	449 (50.1)
Race (n=892)	
Caucasian	663 (74.3)
African American	150 (16.8)
Asian	46 (5.2)
Other	33 (3.7)
Hispanic (n=890)	46 (5.2)
Marital Status (n=895)	
Married	429 (47.9)
Single/never married	294 (32.9)
Previously married	172 (19.2)
Have children under 18	267 (29.7)
Highest level of Education (n=892)	
Some high school	79 (8.9)
High school graduate	184 (20.6)
Some college	266 (29.8)
College graduate	252 (28.3)
Post-graduate	111 (12.4)
Household income level (n=756)	
Less than \$25,000	267 (35.3)
\$25,000 - 49,999	171 (22.6)
\$50,000 – 74,999	113 (15)
\$75,000 – 99,999	62 (8.2)
\$100,000 – 149,000	91 (12)
\$150,000 or more	52 (6.9)
Healthcare professional (n=893)	

No	659 (73.8)
Practitioner	72 (8.1)
Ancillary staff (not directly involved in clinical decision making)	162 (18.1)
Past medical history	
History of cancer (n=895)	162 (18.1)
History of diabetes (n=894)	167 (18.7)
History of hypertension (n=894)	298 (33.3)
History of atrial fibrillation (n=894)	64 (7.2)
History of heart attack (n=894)	47 (5.3)
Overall health (n=893)	
Poor	112 (12.5)
Fair	224 (25.1)
Good	298 (33.4)
Very good	203 (22.7)
Excellent	56 (6.3)

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Table 2: Testing preferences across varying levels of risk, benefit, and cost for each scenario

	CP (n=900)	mTBI-adult (n=775)	mTBI-child (n=125)	Difference between percent desiring testing among mTBI-child and mTBI-adult (95% CI)
	Number desiring testing / Number randomized to group (%)	Number desiring testing / Number randomized to group (%)	Number desiring testing / Number randomized to group (%)	
Risk				
0.1%	319/453 (70.4)	249/380 (65.5)	63/72 (87.5)	22.0% (11.3% to 29.6%)
1%	308/447 (68.9)	247/395 (62.5)	41/53 (77.4)	14.8% (1.1% to 25.2%)
Diff. (95% CI)	-1.5% (-7.5% to 4.5%)	-3.0% (-9.7% to 3.8%)	-10.1% (-24.3% to 3.1%)	
Benefit				
0.1%	291/448 (65.0)	228/375 (60.8)	59/72 (81.9)	21.1% (9.7% to 29.9%)
1%	336/452 (74.3)	268/400 (67.0)	45/53 (84.9)	17.9% (5.2% to 26.6%)
Diff. (95% CI)	+9.4% (3.4% to 15.3%)	+6.2% (-0.6% to 12.9%)	+3.0% (-11.0% to 15.7%)	
Cost				
\$0	361/447 (80.8)	275/377 (72.9)	56/69 (81.2)	8.2% (-3.4% to 17.1%)
\$100	266/453 (58.7)	221/398 (55.5)	48/56 (85.7)	30.2% (17.8% to 38.6%)
Diff. (95% CI)	-22.0% (-27.7% to -16.1%)	-17.4% (-24.1% to -10.5%)	+4.6% (-9.1% to 18.3%)	

Total	627/900 (69.7)	496/775 (64.0)	104/125 (83.2)	
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Table 2 caption: Proportions are unadjusted. Abbreviations: CP = chest pain, mTBI = mild traumatic brain injury, diff = difference, CI = confidence interval.

Table 3: Associations between testing risk, benefit and cost: logistic regression models

	Model 1 AOR (95% CI)	Model 2 AOR (95% CI)	Model 3 AOR (95% CI)
CP (n=900)			
Risk (1% v. 0.1%)	1.01 (0.75, 1.36)	0.99 (0.71, 1.39)	0.98 (0.70, 1.38)
Benefit (1% v. 0.1%)	1.55 (1.15, 2.08)	1.63 (1.16, 2.29)	1.67 (1.18, 2.35)
Cost (\$100 v. \$0)	0.34 (0.25, 0.46)	0.34 (0.24, 0.48)	0.33 (0.23, 0.47)
mTBI all (n=900)			
Risk (1% v. 0.1%)	0.80 (0.60, 1.06)	0.82 (0.60, 1.13)	0.82 (0.60, 1.14)
Benefit (1% v. 0.1%)	1.30 (0.98, 1.73)	1.24 (0.90, 1.71)	1.27 (0.92, 1.76)
Cost (\$100 v. \$0)	0.50 (0.37, 0.66)	0.53 (0.39, 0.73)	0.50 (0.36, 0.69)
mTBI adult (n=775)			
Risk (1% v. 0.1%)	0.86 (0.64, 1.16)	0.87 (0.62, 1.21)	0.86 (0.61, 1.20)
Benefit (1% v. 0.1%)	1.35 (0.999, 1.82)	1.26 (0.90, 1.77)	1.28 (0.90, 1.80)
Cost (\$100 v. \$0)	0.46 (0.34, 0.62)	0.50 (0.36, 0.71)	0.47 (0.33, 0.67)
mTBI child (n=125)			
Risk (1% v. 0.1%)	0.48 (0.19, 1.26)	0.51 (0.12, 2.16)	1.75 (0.19, 16.53)
Benefit (1% v. 0.1%)	1.08 (0.40, 2.94)	0.73 (0.16, 3.44)	1.02 (0.07, 16.00)
Cost (\$100 v. \$0)	1.42 (0.52, 3.85)	1.09 (0.26, 4.49)	2.19 (0.20, 23.42)

Table 3 Caption: Nested logistic regression models of the odds of electing diagnostic testing among emergency department patients presented with hypothetical clinical scenarios of chest pain and minor traumatic brain injury. Model 1 accounts only for risk, benefit and cost simultaneously. Model 2 adds demographic variables including age, gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, education, and income. Model 3 additionally includes working in the medical or health field, personal history of cancer, high blood pressure, diabetes, atrial fibrillation, and myocardial infarction, as well as self-reported overall health status. Abbreviations: CP = chest pain, mTBI = mild traumatic brain injury, AOR = adjusted odds ratio, CI = confidence interval.